

COMP3630/6360: Theory of Computation
Semester 1, 2022
The Australian National University

Time Complexity

This lecture covers Chapter 10 of HMU: Time Complexity

- NP-Hardness of CNFSAT
- NP-Hardness of 3SAT
- More NP-Hard Problems

Additional Reading: Chapter 10 of HMU.

Cook's Theorem (*SAT* is **NP**-Complete)

- Cook's theorem gives a “generic reduction” for every problem in **NP** to *SAT*. So *SAT* is as hard as any other problem in **NP**—it's **NP**-complete.
- So, *SAT* is the granddaddy of all **NP**-complete problems.
- Many people have worked on the *SAT* problem, and there are now very efficient solvers (*SAT* solvers) for it.
- People frequently translate **NP**-complete problems to propositional logic, and then attack them with these general solvers!

CSAT

CSAT is a special case of SAT.

$$\text{CSAT} = \{ \langle \phi \rangle \mid \phi \text{ is a satisfiable cnf formula} \}$$

where a Boolean formula is in *cnf* (for *conjunctive normal form*) if it is (also) generated by the grammar

$$\phi \rightarrow (c) \mid (c) \wedge \phi$$

$$\ell \rightarrow p \mid \neg p$$

$$c \rightarrow \ell \mid \ell \vee c$$

$$p \rightarrow x \mid y \mid \dots$$

We call *cs clauses*, *ls literals*, and *ps propositions*.

Example 10.1

$(x \vee z) \wedge (y \vee z)$ is a cnf for the Boolean formula $(x \wedge y) \vee z$.

CSAT is **NP**-Complete

Clearly *CSAT* is in **NP** because we can use the same certificate for ϕ in cnf as we would for the same ϕ in *SAT*.

Giving a **P** reduction from *SAT* to *CSAT* is tricky.

A straight-forward translation of Boolean formulae into equivalent cnf may result in an exponential blow-up, meaning that this approach is useless.

Instead, we recall a reduction f won't have to preserve *satisfaction*:

$$\forall \pi (\pi \models \phi \iff \pi \models f(\phi))$$

but merely *satisfiability*

$$\exists \pi (\pi \models \phi) \iff \exists \pi (\pi \models f(\phi))$$

meaning that we're free to choose different π s for the two sides.

CSAT is **NP**-Hard

The translation from Boolean formulae to cnf proceeds in two steps which are both in **P**.

- ① Translate to *nnf* (*negation normal form*) by pushing all negation symbols down to propositions. (This is still satisfaction-preserving.)
- ② Translate from *nnf* to *cnf*. (This merely preserves satisfiability.)

Pushing Down \neg

We use de Morgan's laws and the law of double negation to rewrite left-hand-sides to right-hand-sides:

$$\neg(\phi \wedge \psi) \Leftrightarrow \neg(\phi) \vee \neg(\psi)$$

$$\neg(\phi \vee \psi) \Leftrightarrow \neg(\phi) \wedge \neg(\psi)$$

$$\neg(\neg(\phi)) \Leftrightarrow \phi$$

Example 10.2

$$\begin{aligned}\neg((\neg(x \vee y)) \wedge (\neg x \vee y)) &\Leftrightarrow \neg(\neg(x \vee y)) \vee \neg(\neg x \vee y) \\ &\Leftrightarrow x \vee y \vee \neg(\neg x \vee y) \\ &\Leftrightarrow x \vee y \vee \neg(\neg x) \wedge \neg y \\ &\Leftrightarrow x \vee y \vee x \wedge \neg y\end{aligned}$$

Pushing Down \neg cont.

Theorem 10.3

Every Boolean formula ϕ is equivalent to a Boolean formula ψ in nnf. Moreover, $|\psi|$ is linear in $|\phi|$ and ψ can be constructed from ϕ in \mathbf{P} .

Proof.

by induction on the number n of Boolean operators (\wedge, \vee, \neg) in ϕ we may show that there is an equivalent ψ in nnf with at most $2n - 1$ operators. □

nfn \longrightarrow cnf

Theorem 10.4

There is a constant c such that every nfn ϕ has a cnf ψ such that:

- 1 ψ consists of at most $|\phi|$ clauses.
- 2 ψ is constructable from ϕ in time at most $c|\phi|^2$.
- 3 $\pi \models \phi$ iff there exists an extension π' of π satisfying $\pi' \models \psi$, for all interpretations π of the propositions in ϕ .

Proof.

by induction on $|\phi|$. □

nfn \rightarrow cnf cont.

Example 10.5

Consider $x \wedge \neg y \vee \neg x \wedge (y \vee z)$. An equisatisfiable cnf is
 $(u \vee x) \wedge (u \vee \neg y) \wedge (\neg u \vee \neg x) \wedge (\neg u \vee v \vee y) \wedge (\neg u \vee \neg v \vee z)$.

3SAT

3SAT is a special case of CSAT.

$$3SAT = \{ \langle \phi \rangle \mid \phi \text{ is a satisfiable 3cnf formula} \}$$

where a Boolean formula is in *3cnf* (for *3 literal conjunctive normal form*) if it is (also) generated by the grammar

$$\phi \rightarrow (c) \mid (c) \wedge \phi$$

$$\ell \rightarrow p \mid \neg p$$

$$c \rightarrow \ell \vee \ell \vee \ell$$

$$p \rightarrow x \mid y \mid \dots$$

Example 10.6

$(x \vee y \vee z) \wedge (x \vee y \vee \neg z) \wedge (x \vee \neg y \vee z) \wedge (x \vee \neg y \vee \neg z)$ is a 3cnf for the Boolean formula x .

3SAT is **NP**-Complete

Proof.

Clearly 3SAT is in **NP** because we can use the same certificate for ϕ in 3cnf as we would for the same ϕ in SAT (or CSAT).

Sipser prefers to adapt his **NP**-hardness proof for SAT to 3SAT over giving a **P** reduction from SAT to 3SAT.

We **P** reduce from CSAT to 3SAT instead, by translating arbitrary clauses into clauses with exactly three literals. □

Proof detail: how to transform a cnf $\phi = \bigwedge_{i=1}^n c_i$ into an equisatisfiable 3cnf. We transform each clause $c_i = \bigvee_{j=1}^{k_i} \ell_{i,j}$ depending on the number k_i of literals in it. (We omit subscript i .)

Case $k = 1$ (ℓ_1) is replaced by

$$(\ell_1 \vee u \vee v) \wedge (\ell_1 \vee u \vee \neg v) \wedge (\ell_1 \vee \neg u \vee v) \wedge (\ell_1 \vee \neg u \vee \neg v)$$

for some fresh propositions u, v .

Case $k = 2$ ($\ell_1 \vee \ell_2$) is replaced by

$$(\ell_1 \vee \ell_2 \vee u) \wedge (\ell_1 \vee \ell_2 \vee \neg u)$$

for some fresh proposition u .

Case $k = 3$ is 3cnf already.

Case $k > 3$ ($\bigvee_{j=1}^k \ell_j$) is replaced by

$$(\ell_1 \vee \ell_2 \vee u_1) \wedge \bigwedge_{j=1}^{k-4} (\ell_{j+2} \vee \neg u_j \vee u_{j+1}) \wedge (\neg u_{k-3} \vee \ell_{k-1} \vee \ell_k)$$

for some $k - 3$ fresh propositions u_1, \dots, u_{k-3} .

CLIQUE is **NP**-Complete

Let

$$CLIQUE = \left\{ \langle G, k \rangle \mid \begin{array}{l} G \text{ is undirected graph} \\ \text{with } k\text{-clique} \end{array} \right\}$$

We show **NP**-completeness on the whiteboard.

HAMPATH is **NP**-Complete

Recall that

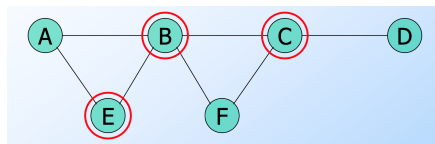
$$HAMPATH = \left\{ \langle G, s, t \rangle \mid \begin{array}{l} \text{Directed graph } G \text{ has a} \\ \text{Hamiltonian path from } s \text{ to } t \end{array} \right\}$$

We already know that *HAMPATH* is in **NP**. We show **NP**-hardness by proving $3SAT \leq_P HAMPATH$ on the whiteboard.

Node Cover

Given an undirected graph G , a *node cover* of G is a set C of vertices such that:

- for every edge between v_1 and v_2 , one of v_1 or v_2 is in C .



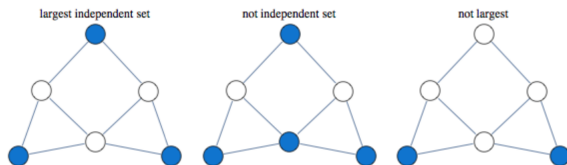
The *Node Cover Problem* is the problem of deciding whether a graph G has a node cover with k or fewer nodes:

$$NC = \{ \langle G, k \rangle \mid G \text{ has node cover of size } \leq k \}$$

Independent Set

Given an undirected graph G , a *independent set* of G is a set C of vertices such that:

- no two vertices v_1 and $v_2 \in C$ are connected by an edge.

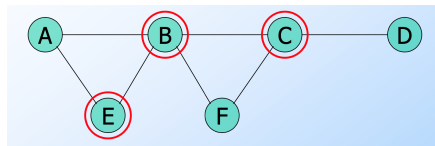


The *Independent Set Problem* is the problem of deciding whether a graph G has an independent set with k or more nodes:

$$IS = \{ \langle G, k \rangle \mid G \text{ has independent set of size } \geq k \}$$

Node Cover vs Independent Set

Q. How are node cover and independent set related?



Node Cover vs Independent Set II

Theorem. A graph G with n vertices has a node cover of size k iff it has an independent set of size $n - k$. Indeed, Node Cover is polytime reducible to independent set.

Corollary. If Node Cover is in NP, then so is independent set.

Theorem. Node Cover is in NP (whiteboard).